WITHOUT EYES THEY PERCEIVE;
WITHOUT VOICES THEY LEARN TO
SPEAK.
James G. Boykin

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Without Eyes They Perceive; Without Voices They Learn to Speak

The Blind and the Dumb, for Centuries Considered Without Hope, Now Take Their Places With Normal Persons in Industrial Life. Self-Reliance, Strong Bodies, and Versatile Minds the Objectives in Instructing Them. Efficient Methods of Teaching Have Developed in Past Century

By JAMES C. BOYKIN
Chief Editorial Division, Bureau of Education

WITH all the sympathetic consideration that enlightened humanity suggests, the lot of those who are deprived of either of the special senses is hard enough, but they are infinitely better off now than at any time in the past. Some of the primitive peoples destroyed them without compunction as incumbrances. In other tribes they were held in a kind of superstitious awe but as men apart from other men.

When civilization began to advance, the deaf and the blind were allowed to live, but they were often treated with cruelty. God's chosen people during the Mosaic period were certainly no more brutal than the peoples about them, and it is indicative of the customs of the time that the prohibitions of Leviticus included this:

"And the Lord spake unto Moses, saying, speak unto all the congregation of the children of Israel, and say unto them * * *

"Thou shalt not curse the deaf, nor put a stumbling block before the blind but shalt fear thy God."

Under the Roman law persons born deaf were deprived of civil rights and were required to have guardians. The common feeling toward them was expressed in these lines of Lucretius, which have been often quoted:

"To instruct the deaf no art could ever reach,
No care improve them, and no wisdom teach."

Mendicancy Considered Inevitable for Blind Men

Blind Bartimæus as he sat by the highwayside, begging, typified that fate and the usual occupation of the blind at the time of Christ. Then, and for centuries afterward, blind men jostled each other and fought for favorable places for soliciting alms. The spread of Christianity increased the sentiments of charity which men felt for the afflicted, and made their begging more profitable, but few before the closing years of the eighteenth century thought of blind men in any other rôle than as mendicants and public charges.

Attention was given much earlier to the possibility of educating the deaf. The Venerable Bede, in the latter part of the seventh century, described a miracle wrought by his former teacher, John of Beverly, Bishop of York, which consisted of teaching a deaf person to speak. Girolamo Cardano, an Italian physician of the sixteenth century, suggested that the deaf might be capable of speech, and he invented a manual alphabet for them. About the same time a Spanish Benedictine monk, Pedro Ponce de Leon, for the first time in history successfully taught a class of deaf children, using oral methods.

In 1620, another Spaniard, Juan Pablo Bonet, who had had some experience in teaching deaf pupils, wrote a book on the subject, and invented a manual alphabet which appears to have been the foundation of that which is now used. A few years afterward Dr. John Bulwer, an Englishman, under the inspiration of the measure of success reached by the Spanish schools, wrote two books, one on the language of the hand and the other on the possibility of teaching articulation and lip reading to the deaf.

Attempts in Nearly Every European Country

During the century following these events, desultory attempts were made at teaching deaf children in nearly all the countries of Europe, and a number of books were written upon its theory and practice.

Finally Samuel Heinicke attained real success in oral instruction at Dresden and at Hamburg, beginning in 1754. In 1778 he became the head of a school at Leipzig under the auspices of the Government of Saxony which is described as the first public school for the deaf.

The first fully developed school for the deaf in France was that established in 1755 in Paris by Charles Michel, Abbé de l'Épée. The abbé and his school speedily became famous, and he was so overwhelmed with pupils that he reluctantly abandoned the oral methods with which he began, and adopted a manual method which required less of individual instruction. The school was adopted by the French Government in 1791, and after the death of Abbé de l'Épée, Abbé Sicard became its head.

Efforts parallel with those of Heinicke and the Abbé de l'Épée were begun by Thomas Braidwood in Edinburg in 1760 He used an oral method, presumably his own, and by strict secrecy in his instruction he was enabled to maintain a monopoly in the business, for such he made it, during more than a half century. Members of his family continued the work after his death, and they opened schools in other parts of Great Britain.

Knowledge of these things naturally spread abroad and schools for the deaf were established in most of the countries of Europe during the last decades of the eighteenth century.

In the meantime, many of those who sought to benefit the deaf also thought of aiding the blind, but practical means were not readily apparent. It is to be presumed that individuals in favorable circumstances found means of education on their own account. Genius recognizes no obstacles; Homer and Milton prove that. Other men of native ability, especially those whose parents were well-to-do, undoubtedly made respectable places in society for themselves notwithstanding their afflictions. But mendicancy was so fixed in the public mind as the one resort of the blind that it is recorded that certain asylums established under royal patronage were supported in part by the begging of the inmates.

Fatalism a Restraint to Scientific Prevention

Universally, blindness was then considered a visitation of Providence. Indeed, the Holy Word was the foundation of the belief, for it is written, "And the Lord said unto Moses, Who hath made man's mouth? or who maketh the dumb, or deaf, or the seeing, or the blind? have not I the Lord?" We now know that ignorant midwives, not inscrutable Providence, were responsible for much of the blindness that afflicts mankind; nevertheless, the superstitious fatalism of a dark age acted as a restraint to effort at scientific prevention.

It remained for a Frenchman, Valentin Hauy, to prove that education of the blind by the use of embossed print is as easily practicable as that of seeing per-

sons, and to establish at Paris a school for the blind which was the first in the world. Hauy's sympathies were touched by a humiliating exhibition of blind persons, and he set about to find means of elevating them above their degradation. By promising an intelligent young beggar, Francois Lesueur, as much money as he could gain by begging, he induced him to submit to instruction. The effort was successful, and in 1784 Hauy established his pioneer school. It attracted immediate attention throughout Europe. Philanthropic individuals and societies in a dozen countries established similar schools within a few years, although the whole of Europe was aflame with the Napoleonic wars.

Americans Follow Lead of Europeans

So much for the European beginnings of the education of the deaf and the blind. For America to follow was inevitable.

Several American children were sent to the Edinburgh school conducted by the Braidwoods, and the father of one of them, Francis Green, was particularly active in stimulating interest in this country in the education of the deaf. Several deaf children were inmates of the New York City Almshouse and the efforts of Rev. John Stanford to teach them, beginning about 1807, is said to have led to the establishment of the New York institution a few years afterward.

John Braidwood, a member of the Scotch family of instructors of the deaf, came to this country in 1812, through the instrumentality of the persons whose relative he had taught in Scotland, and conducted private schools for short periods in Virginia and New York, but he died a few years later without making any real contribution to American history.

Manual Method in America's First School

Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet was the actual pioneer in the instruction of the deaf in America. Friends of Alice Cogswell, a young deaf girl who lived in Hartford, Conn., in seeking means to benefit her, commissioned young Gallaudet, then a student of theology in Hartford, to go to Europe to investigate the methods of the schools there. Gallaudet was inclined to the oral method and first went to England, but encountered the spirit of concealment and monopoly in the Braidwoods, and was obliged to turn to France. There he was met with great cordiality by Abbé Sicard, and returned to America filled with enthusiasm for the manual method, and accompanied by Laurent Clerc, one of Sicard's best teachers.

Active steps were taken at once to establish a school. A society was organized and a charter was procured from the Legislature of Connecticut in 1816, and on April 15, 1817, the school was opened under the name of the American Asylum for the deaf, but the word "Asylum" was afterward replaced by "School." It was early recognized that the school was more than a local institution. Several States made appropriations to aid it, and the United States Congress gave it 23,000 acres of land which ultimately yielded $300,000.

Rapid Establishment of Schools after Beginning

Even before the Hartford school was actually in operation similar institutions were projected in New York and Philadelphia. Both were established in due course, and in 1823 another was established in Kentucky. The progress made since that time is too well known to require recital.

As Europe was slower in recognizing the needs of the blind than those of the deaf, so also was the United States. The first American school for the blind came 15 years after that for the deaf. Discussions concerning the need of such an institution occurred from time to time, but it was not until a meeting of philanthropic citizens was held in Boston on February 10, 1829, that anything definite was done. The organization of a school was determined then and there. The Legislature of Massachusetts granted a charter to the "New England Asylum for the Blind" soon afterwards, and Dr. Samuel G. Howe was chosen to be the head of it.

Doctor Howe visited several European schools to prepare himself the better for his task, and brought back with him two experienced teachers, one from Edinburgh and the other from Paris. The school began operations in August, 1832, with six pupils. Its name was changed to the "Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind" upon the receipt of a substantial gift from the Boston gentleman whose name was incorporated in the title.

Great Cities Again Are Pioneers

New York and Philadelphia followed close upon the heels of New England in the establishment of schools for the blind as in those for the deaf. The fourth school to be established was that of Ohio, which was opened in 1837. Virginia established a combined school for the deaf and the blind, the first instance of the combination, in 1839.

The part of private philanthropy in the establishment of institutions for defectives has been to show the way. The States have followed the lead, for education is recognized as a function of the State. The Perkins Institution and seven other schools for the blind are under private control but 48 institutions are maintained directly by the several States.

Of the schools for the deaf, 67 are State institutions and 19, most of them small, are private enterprises. Only 15 institutions, in 13 States, admit both the deaf and the blind.

In addition to the residential institutions, day classes for the deaf and for the blind are maintained in many of the large cities as parts of their public-school systems. The Bureau of Education reports that 74 cities maintain classes for deaf children and that 15 cities maintain classes for blind children. Some of the residential schools started as day classes, but the deaf classes of the sort now recognized as day schools began with the Horace Mann School for the Deaf in 1869. The first day classes for the blind were opened in Chicago in 1900.

Advantages of Institutions and of Day Schools

Many of the directors of the residential institutions oppose the day classes because they feel that better care can be given in institutions, in which better equipment and grading are generally provided. They consider, too, that the children are treated more as normal creatures in the institutions than in many of the homes, and that better supervision of studies and physical activities can be maintained in the institutions.

There is much in their arguments. Nevertheless the feeling prevails that proper home life is of inestimable value in the nurture of children, and that it is well for them to remain if possible in the normal environment in which their after life must be spent. Furthermore, the tendency is for the cities to provide the means of education for all classes of their population, even including college training and instruction for adults. That tendency is not only wholesome and proper but it is economical; the cost to the public for educating a child in a residential institution is about twice as great as that of educating him at home. The day classes clearly have their place, and their numbers may be expected to increase.

Two Classes of Schools Are Complementary

Their growth, however, will never deprive the residential institutions of the necessity of being. Only the large cities have enough deaf or blind children to justify the formation of special classes, and even in those cities some children will have to be sent to the institutions for special instruction which they could scarcely obtain in the city classes. The two classes of schools are complementary, and the officials of one class may well consider the other class with complacency.

Much has been said of the differences in systems and methods, and there is no doubt that those differences have in the

past resulted in inconvenience at the very least. It is a matter of congratulation that the several schools of thought in such matters have come to a practical understanding. It is recognized that deaf children who can do so with reasonable effort and success ought to learn to speak and to read the lips of others in speaking, and that if enough of hearing is left to be worth while it ought to be utilized. But most of those concerned with the teaching of the deaf realize that the manual method is the best that can be given to many of the congenitally deaf. It is recognized all over the world that "it is in America that by far the best results in education [of the deaf] are to be seen," as the Encyclopaedia Britannica expresses it, and the reason for that preeminence lies in the sturdy common sense of American schoolmen.

The definite adoption of the Braille system as the uniform type for the blind is one of the greatest forward steps in the education of the American blind which has ever been taken. Proper standardization is as useful in instruction as it is in bridge building, and Americans are leaders in it.

The prime purpose in all instruction is mental development. All other considerations must be subordinated to that. The methods in the special schools should be such that the study of the method per se shall be replaced as early as possible by the study of the substance. The method is useful only as a vehicle by which the great end of the school may be reached.

Similarly, the industries taught in the schools must be chosen and instruction in them must be directed toward the end of general development, and not with the expectation that only the particular industries taught shall be within the power of the graduate. Deaf-mutes and blind men are in nearly every occupation that is open to those who see and hear. Remembering that, self-reliance, strong bodies, and well-trained and versatile minds must be the principal objectives in their instruction.

Volcano Observatory Now Controlled by Interior Department

Control of the Hawaiian Volcano Observatory has been transferred from the Weather Bureau to the Geological Survey, Department of the Interior. Regular scientific studies were begun at the crater of Kilauea in 1911, and systematic records of volcano and earthquake activity have been maintained by the director, Dr. A. T. Jaggar, since the erection of the observatory in 1912.

Pennsylvania's Department of Public Instruction

Fourteen Professional Examining Boards Attached to State Department. New Bureaus Provided in Reorganization

THE Administrative Code which was passed at the last session of the Pennsylvania Legislature imposes upon the department of public instruction many new responsibilities and additional opportunities for constructive service. All of the professional examining boards, 14 in number, the State library and museum, the school employee's retirement board, the historical commission, and the board of censors are now organically attached to the department of public instruction.

Four additional State institutions, State Oral School, Soldiers' Orphan School, Home for Training in Speech, and the Thaddeus Stevens Industrial School, have been definitely placed under the supervision of the department of public instruction. The budgets of all educational agencies and institutions receiving State aid now clear through the department of public instruction.

The department has been recognized by providing for a bureau of field service, a professional service office, a fiscal administrative office, a central filing system, and a statistical section. The function of the bureau of field service will be: (1) To keep in close and constant touch with the educational needs and resources of the school districts of the State. (2) To direct and apply in the field the service of the department of public instruction so as to meet the schools needs of the district in the most effective manner possible.

The professional service will act as a general clearing and coordinating agency for the superintendent in administrative matters in the educational field.

The functions of fiscal administration office will be general. Coordination of the department activities in the field of fiscal and business administration.

The statistical section, which is in the fiscal administrative office, will collect and assemble all statistics of the department.

With the avowed object of encouraging education, efficiency, and patriotism the American Educational Association was organized in 1919. It is carrying on its educational work "by means of a series of messages written in the language of the masses and designed to direct thought and attention upon the simple fundamentals to human progress in its relation to society, government, and industry."

Aid in Solving Problems of Health and Welfare

"Welfare week-ends" is the name given to a series of meetings conducted by the extension division of the University of Oregon in cooperation with the Oregon State Board of Health, the Oregon Child Welfare Commission, the Tuberculosis Association of Oregon, the Oregon Social Hygiene Society, and similar organizations. These meetings were held to demonstrate the service available to communities in helping to solve problems of health and welfare.

Public-health nursing, child labor, accident prevention, physical and vocational rehabilitation of injured workers, infant and prenatal care, service to sick and crippled children, and sex education were included in the topics covering the two-day session of illustrated lectures, exhibits, and clinics.

Were You Taught to Care for Your Body?

It may be that you can run an automobile and know something about keeping it in good condition. Do you know as much about your own body, how it should be fueled and cared for to get the most work and fun out of it? When you went to school were you taught this most important business of living? The public schools are taking up this work in real earnest. Do you know what your own schools are doing along these lines? Friday, November 21, is Health and Physical Education Day in these schools. It will pay you to visit them on this day. Perhaps you can learn something for your own good health by such a visit. It will also encourage the teachers and pupils to do better work.—*James F. Rogers.*

Actual Working Museum for Country Children

A children's museum in a rural community on Long Island has been established in what was once a poultry house. Its pointed roof and crossbeams provide a very satisfactory place for holding owls, hawks, and other high-perching birds. A country wood stove gives warmth and cheer. Long tables with glass cases fill the middle section and a zinc-covered table long enough to seat 12 or 14 boys serves for conferences and for the work of mounting, which is done by Boy Scouts. The success of the undertaking is attributed to the homeliness of the building and surroundings. On Saturdays a hot dinner is served to the boys in their own museum.

· SCHOOL LIFE ·

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NOVEMBER, 1924

Observe American Education Week!

HEATED political fights should more than all else intensify the enthusiasm of the voters for the cause of education. The presidential campaign now in progress has been conducted by the three principal candidates upon an unusually high plane. The appeals, impassioned though they have often been, have been directed almost wholly to the intelligence of the voters, rather than to their prejudices. Constitutional questions and matters of broad public policy have been conspicuously emphasized. It has been conspicuously an educational campaign, and not only the voters but the youth of the land have learned much from it.

Political managers do not depend merely upon the excellence of their platforms nor upon the personality of their candidates to procure popular support. They leave undone nothing that will arouse in their adherents a feeling of militant loyalty to their candidates, and to bring into their fold the waverers from other camps.

Similarly, educational leaders must know that they can not rest complacently in the knowledge that the people of the country feel that education is a good thing. They must vigorously and continually appeal for support, and they must throw into their appeals all the enthusiasm that is within them.

American education week follows close upon the election; it should be benefited by the warmth that has been aroused by the earnest discussions of the campaign and by the ardent appeals to patriotism which have been constantly made. Only by those who have had reasonable opportunity for education can such arguments be assimilated.

When all the political speeches have been made and the determination of the people has been recorded, therefore, it behooves the educational leaders to take the places of the political leaders if they can, and continue the agitation, not for political ends but for directing the thought of the country to the means by which its citizens best acquire that intelligence which they must have in order to exercise the right of suffrage properly and to perform the duties of life satisfactorily.

American education week comes at an opportune time. Let us make the most of it.

Land Laws Determined Nation's Policy in Education

EDUCATION in the United States is the concern of the several States. All Americans are fond of saying that, and many of them are not only very emphatic but very sensitive about it. Even the suggestion that the Federal Government might have a part in the conduct of public schools is enough to arouse resentment in any assemblage.

Few object to this feeling, and fewer still would advocate any change from the present status. Nevertheless the Nation has an interest in the education of its people which is no less vital than the interests of the States, and national control of the schools would have come by merely taking the other turn of the road at a point whose importance was not realized at the time.

Much is made of the fact that education was not mentioned in the Constitution. There was good reason for the omission. When that instrument was written education had not become a serious governmental function, either of the State or of the Nation. In the few States in which public schools existed they were essentially local affairs and the most that any State had done was formally to require communities to establish schools and to render limited aid. Naturally none of the delegates to the Constitutional Convention thought of suggesting a provision to cover a matter which had never been a prominent issue.

The question was settled in an entirely different manner. The policy of reserving public lands for school purposes was inaugurated in the ordinance of May 20, 1785, passed by the Congress of the Confederation "for ascertaining the mode of disposing of lands in the Western Territory."

It was freely asserted then by many of the leading statesmen of the Nation that there was no reason why the United States should not organize, control, and manage the schools so endowed. Section No. 16 of each township surveyed was duly reserved for schools in accordance with the ordinance, but no determination was made as to what authority should administer those schools. For 17 years, including the period of the preparation and the adoption of the Constitution, the matter remained open, principally because no occasion arose to discuss it. In all that time no transfer of title or control of the reserved school lands was made.

It was not until January 26, 1802, that a committee was appointed in the House of Representatives "to inquire into the situation of the several tracts and parcels of land which have been granted, appropriated, or reserved for the support of public schools and seminaries of learning * * * and to take into their consideration what measures are necessary and ought to be adopted to carry fully into effect the design of every such grant, appropriation, or reservation."

In the meantime the famous ordinance of 1787 had been enacted, and Manasseh Cutler and his associates had become active. When the formation of a State government for Ohio was authorized by the act of April 30, 1802, the lands of section 16 were "granted to the inhabitants of each township for the use of schools." This was similar to the practice which had long prevailed in New England, and it was adopted apparently because New England men were prominent in the affairs of Ohio and the legislation was framed in the manner to which they were accustomed. The relative interests of State and Nation did not enter into consideration.

Many variations upon this law have been made in later grants, but in none of them has the Congress sought to retain in the National Government any control whatever of the common schools established through donations of public lands. The die had been cast, the precedent established, and none has sought to change its essential principle. The common schools have grown in the affections of the people and the wisdom of local control is proved beyond preadventure.

Contributions have been made by the Congress in aid of all classes of instruction, amounting in value to enormous sums. Combining the information in a leaflet recently issued by the General Land Office, which shows the donations of land to the several purposes, with that in Dr. F. H. Swift's pamphlet Federal Aid to Public Schools, which shows the part which reached the schools from "internal improvements," "swamp lands," etc., it appears that the National Government has donated lands to educational purposes covering not less than 300,000 square miles—approximately the present area of the original 13 States.

If it had been economically conserved and skilfully managed, it is not a wild conjecture to say that this land would have been in itself well-nigh sufficient to maintain the whole educational systems of the States which participated in the distribution. The waste and mismanagement in handling school and university lands is an oft-told tale. Notwithstanding the blunders that were made in plenty, the establishment of common schools in many of the public-land States must have

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